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Patent Application of Virgil Olson

for

Lift Generation by Counter-Rotating Line Vortices

Background - Field of Invention

This invention relates to aircraft, specifically to a method and apparatus for using side-by-side counter-rotating line vortices to generating lift by the Bernoulli Effect.

Background

Aircraft can fly because of a net upward force exerted by air against their lifting surfaces. That net upward force is generated by the Bernoulli Effect.

A body of air in motion is under less pressure than a body of air that is still. Additionally, the faster a body of air moves the less pressure it feels. That phenomenon is known as the Bernoulli Effect.

An air stream or air flow is defined as a body of air in motion.

Vectors

The velocity of a body in motion is always calculated relative to some other body. In this case the velocity of the body of air in question is calculated relative to the body of air surrounding it.

Velocity, pressure and force are vectors. Vectors are numbers with a magnitudes as well as directions. Pressure is expressed as force per unit area. The total force acting on acting on a surface is

pressure per unit area multiplied times the surfaces area. For instance, if the pressure acting on a flat surface is 1 pound per square inch and the surface has an area of 2 square inches it the force acting on the surface would be 2 pounds.

Force = pressure x area

Force = $(1 \text{ pound/} 1 \text{ square inch}) \times 1 \text{ square inch} = 1 \text{ pound}$

The force acting on each 1 square inch area can be represented as a vector. When two vectors are added together the total is called the resultant. Those vectors representing the force acting on each square inch can be added together to yield the total force acting on the surface. The direction of the force resultant is perpendicular to the surface and in the same direction as of the pressure resultant. The resultant's magnitude or size is 2 pounds. The units of the vector are in pounds.

Static Pressures

To keep the descriptions simple, the entities discussed here are all at sea level. Parallel descriptions can be constructed for other altitudes.

A body of air at rest relative to the surrounding air feels a pressure of 1 atmosphere (atm). One atmosphere is the same or equivalent to the following:

- 1 atm = 14.7 pounds per square inch (lb./sq. in)
- 1 atm = 2117 pounds per square foot (lb./sq. ft.)

A surface immersed in and at rest relative to a body of still air also experiences a pressure of 1 atm. If a planar surface is oriented so that it is horizontal, it will feel a pressure of 2117 lb./sq. ft. pushing downward on its upper side and will feel a pressure of 2117 lb./sq. ft. pushing upward on its lower side. The forces that those pressures generate cancel out leaving no net force acting on that surface.

Aerodynamic Pressures

A point is embedded within a air stream has the same velocity as the air stream. That point will inscribe a line through space as it travels with the body of air. That inscribed line is defined as a streamline.

Due to friction, air in contact with a surface always has the same velocity as that surface. That thin body of air in contact with the surface is called a boundary layer. If an air stream is moving or

translating past a flat surface and the flat surface is oriented parallel to the stream lines of that translating body of air, its boundary layer is in motion relative to that airstream. As a result the boundary layer will experience a reduced pressure relative to the surrounding body of air. That reduced pressure will be transmitted to the surface.

If a flat surface is oriented horizontally and is immersed in an air stream moving horizontally at 200 m.p.h. the surface, the boundary layers will feel a pressure of 9/10 atm. Since the surface is in contact with the boundary layer it will also feel a pressure of 9/10 atm. The pressure pushing downward on its upper side will be 1905 lb./sq. ft. and the pressure pushing upward on its lower side will be 1905 lb./sq. ft. Again, the effects of the pressures cancel out so that the surface feels no net force acting in an up or down direction.

Types of Air Flows

When the sub-layers within a transition layer flow past each other smoothly they are called laminar air flows.

Between the boundary layer surrounding a surface and a passing body of air exists a transition layer. That transition layer contains sub-layers. The velocity of the sub-layers relative to the passing body of air decreases with increasing distance from that surface until the velocity of the outer most sub-layers become the same as that passing air stream. Also, the closer a transition sub-layer is to the surface the higher its velocity relative to the passing airstream and the lower the pressure sub-layer experiences.

The transition layers because of the graduated velocities of their sub-layers are powerful amplifiers. They amplify tiny movement irregularities in air flowing past a surface and its boundary layer. Those amplified irregularities are call turbulence. The air flows containing the turbulence are called turbulent air flows. The effects of turbulent air flows can be ignored for now.

Drag

There is one force that the above surface would feel however. The passing air stream pulls on the surface as it passes. The force acting on that surface is called drag. Any body in contact with a passing airstream will feel such a force. Drag is vector. It is a forced that is directed parallel to the velocity of the passing air stream.

The Wing



If the upper side of a surface is made to be convex while the lower side of the surface remains flat and the distance from front to back is 10% longer over the top than the bottom, air moving near to the upper and lower surfaces will move 10% faster over the top than over the bottom. If the surface is immersed in a large body of air moving past the above surface at 200 m.p.h., air near to the upper surface will move 10% faster than the air moving past the lower surface. The upper surface would feels a pressure of about 0.89 atm while the lower surface feels a pressure of 0.9 atm. The pressures acting on the surface do not cancel out and there would be an upward pressure of 0.01 atm or 21 lb/sq. ft. That upward pressure is called the lift factor. The amount of upward force acting on a surface is called lift. All wings have similar shapes and when moving through the air at 200 m.p.h. produce similar lift factors.

Generalized Lifting Surfaces

Any object experiencing an air flow asymmetry between its uppermost surface and its lowermost surface experiences a force acting perpendicular to the direction of the air stream.

A surface designed to generate lift is defined as a lifting surface.

The larger the air flow asymmetry around a lifting surface the larger the amount of lift it generates.

A surface with an airstream moving 200 m.p.h. past its upper side and with still air in contact with its lower side experiences a lift factor of 1/10 atm or 212 lb./sq. ft. That is a lift factor that is roughly 10 times that of the wing.

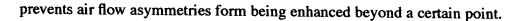
In order to efficiently generate lift with the Bernoulli Effect, the air flows need to move parallel to the surfaces they are interacting with. If the surfaces have a curvatures the air flows ideally should move parallel to the tangents of those curvatures at every point.

Wing Limitations

Wings do not produce very large lift factors because they can not produce very large air flow asymmetries. In order to increase the air flow asymmetry around a wing, the top of it must be made more convex. However, if the upper surface becomes too convex, a point of diminishing returns is reached. The air flow will separates from the surface before it reaches the trailing edge. That leaves a lower velocity air stream in contact with part of the upper surface boundary layer. That separation of passing air stream from the boundary layer when curvatures becomes too large



TEOX



Forces generated by the Bernoulli Effect are directed perpendicularly to surfaces experiencing air flows moving past them.

Vortices

The Bernoulli Effect is produced not only by bodies of air moving in straight lines but also by bodies of air that are rotating.

Tornados are examples of rotating bodies of air. Air is a fluid. A rotating body of fluid is called a vortex (the plural of vortex is vortices).

Vortex Structure

Physical vortices have an internal structure. They have an axis at their center around which they rotate. If the axis of a vortex does not connect with itself to form a ring, the vortex is called a line vortex. Around that axis is a cylindrical body of fluid that rotates as solid body because of viscosity effects or friction. That part of a vortex that rotates as a solid body is called a core. Points within the core all take the same amount of time to rotate around the vortex axis. The velocity, V, of a point within that core is directly proportional to its distance, r, from the axis.

 $V \propto r$

Outside of the core is another cylindrical body of fluid that is concentric to the core. The velocity, V, of a point within that portion of the vortex varies inversely as its distance, r, from the vortex axis.

 $V \propto \frac{1}{r}$

Forced and Natural Vortices

Rotating bodies of fluid that rotate as a solid body behave like the core of a vortex are defined as forced vortices. Rotating bodies of fluid that behave like the outer portion of the vortex are defined natural vortices. The interface between the forced and natural portions of vortices is the point where the velocities are the highest. That is also the region where the Bernoulli Effect is the most pronounced and the pressures are approaching the minimum for the vortex. The pressures in the



forced vortex decline further as the center of the forced vortex is approached because of the action of centrifugal force on the rotating gases in the vortex core.

Vortex Extent

It is important to note that the natural portion of a vortex, in theory, extends to infinity. The core of a vortex and the natural part of the vortex near to the core produce the most pronounced effects but those portions only represent a small part of the complete vortex.

The at the interface between the core and the natural vortex portions of tornado the air velocities often reach 200 m.p.h. The pressure at that interface is about 9/10 atm.

Impellers for Making Forced Vortices

A forced vortex can be created within a cylindrical rotor or impeller. Such a impeller has an axis of rotation. A drive shaft with an axis oriented colinearly with the impeller axis of rotation holds a pair of equal pluralities of radial spokes. The spokes, mounted perpendicularly and symmetrically around the drive shaft, are of equal length. Mounted parallel to the impeller axis of rotation on the outer ends of the spokes are identical impeller blades. A impeller blade is defined as a long, narrow, rigid, rectangular piece of material. The widths of the impeller blades are oriented radially to the axis of rotation. The center of the impeller is hollow except for the drive shaft and the spokes supporting the impeller blades. Such an apparatus is defined as a impeller or cylindrical impeller.

In turning the impeller, the impeller blades push and pull the air around the periphery of the volume enclosed by the impeller. Friction or drag between elements of the enclosed volume of air cause relative motions to damp out and the enclosed body of air to all rotate with the same angular velocity. rotate as a solid body or forced vortex. The forced vortex is said to be embedded in the impeller.

The outer surface of the volume swept out by the impeller blades is defined as the surface of the forced vortex.

Vortex Seals

In order to prevent the embedded air in the forced vortex from being thrown out of the impeller by the action of centrifugal force, circular surfaces perpendicular the impeller axis of rotation are situated near each end of the impeller. Such surfaces prevent the inflow of air along the impeller axis of rotation. The circular surfaces have a slightly larger diameter than the impeller. The the forced

vortex is said to terminate on the circular surfaces. The circular surfaces that the forced vortex terminates on are defined as vortex seals.

Forced Vortex Pressures

A forced vortex three feet in diameter rotating at 1868 revolutions per minute (r.p.m.) duplicates the conditions at the of the core of a tornado. The surface of the forced vortex has a velocity of 200 m.p.h. and has a pressure of 9/10 atm. It is also surrounded by a natural vortex that, in theory, extends to infinity. That natural vortex surrounding the forced vortex has important implications.

Half Cylinder Lifting Surfaces

The surface of the forced vortex has thin layer of air surrounding it that rotates at the same rate as the forced vortex. If a concentric half-cylinder closely encases the lower half of the forced vortex, the upper side of the half-cylinder would have air moving 200 miles per hour past the upper surface and its boundary layer. That boundary layer would experience a pressure of 9/10 atm which would be transmitted to the upper surface. If still air at 1 atm were in contact with the lower surface, the half cylinder would feel an upward pressure of 1/10 atm acting everywhere perpendicularly to that surface toward the forced vortex axis.

The half cylinder can be thought of as consisting of a large number of small flat areas. The force acting on each area would due to the pressure differential would be a vector directed at the axis of the half cylinder. All those vectors can be added together to yield a single resultant. That resultant would be a vector directed from the center of the half cylindrical surface toward its axis. Its magnitude would be:

Force = pressure x width of cylinder x length of cylinder

If the pressure is 211 lb/sq in, the width of the cylinder is 3 feet and the length is 6 feet, the force acting on the half cylinder would be:

Force =
$$(21.1 \text{ lb/sq ft}) \times (3 \text{ ft}) \times (6 \text{ ft}) = 3798 \text{ lb}$$

The half cylinder surface has low pressure high velocity air above its upper side and high pressure low velocity air below its lower side so the force it is experiences is directed upward. The half cylinder experiences 3798 lb of lift. Such a half-cylinder surfaces are defined as a lifting surfaces. An aircraft having a pair of lifting surfaces 3 feet in diameter by six feet long such as the one discussed above long generates a total lifting force of 7596 pounds.



Air Guides and Air Knives

If the forced vortex in the example above is surrounded by the natural vortex that ordinarily accompanies it, the air in that natural vortex would sweep around to the underside of the half cylinder surface. That would greatly reduced the air velocity asymmetry experienced by that surface and thus reduce the lift produced by it. In order to protect the underside of the lifting surface, the air in the natural vortex that doesn't fit between the impeller and the lifting surface must be guided away from the underside of lifting surface.

That is done by attaching the upper edge of a rectangular surface, that has the same length as the lifting surface, to the edge of the lifting surface experiencing the downward moving air of the natural vortex. The rectangular surface attaches so that it is substantially tangent to that edge. The rectangular surfaces guide the air downward and away from the underside of the half cylinder surface. Those rectangular surfaces are defined as air guides. The intersection between each lifting surface and the air guide are defined as the air knife.

Torques

Newton's Third Law says: for every action there is an equal and opposite reaction.

A torque is defined as a twisting force. Because torque is a force, it is a vector. In order to rotate one of the above impellers a torque is applied to it by a powerplant. The powerplant experiences a torque that has exactly the same magnitude but is opposite in direction. That opposing torque, which is defined as a reactive torque, arises as a result of Newton's Third Law.

A powerplant attached to an aircraft incorporating the above impeller, passes the torque to the air-frame of that aircraft. The torque, that is passed to the airframe, causes the aircraft to feel a twisting force in the opposite direction as the impeller. To cancel out the reactive torque generated by the action of turning the impeller an aircraft using the above lift mechanism and process that is the subject of this invention has two impellers. The axis of the impellers are substantially parallel and that rotate around their respective axes in opposite directions. The torques are equal in magnitude but opposite in direction. The resultant of the two torques has a magnitude of zero. The reactive torques cancel themselves out. That leaves the airframe of the aircraft of employing this invention with no net torques acting on it due to the operation of the impellers.

Lifting Surface Orientation

Notice that an aircraft with those lifting surfaces would have to be hovering or standing still. Such



lifting surfaces and impeller mechanisms can be at rest relative to the surrounding air and still generate lift for an aircraft that incorporates them.

The axes of the impellers for an aircraft employing them to generate lift are parallel to its direction of travel. The stream lines of the forced vortices generated by the impellers are perpendicular to the craft's direction of travel.

Notice that, when in forward motion, the aircraft still has a huge air flow asymmetry over its lifting surfaces when compared with the wing and thus the lifting surfaces would retain their large lift factors when compared to the wing.

Imaginary Descriptive Planes

Aircraft have bilateral symmetry. That means that left half of an aircraft is the mirror image of the right half. An imaginary plane can be constructed dividing the left half of an aircraft from the right half. Such a plane will be defined as the plane of bilateral symmetry.

An aircraft incorporating a lift mechanism based on the forced vortices also has a bilateral plane of symmetry. The center lines of the lifting surfaces are parallel to that plane of bilateral symmetry with the plane of bilateral symmetry evenly dividing the space between them. The axes of the impellers are parallel each other as well and are coincident with the center lines of the lifting surfaces.

A pair of parallel lines, such as the center lines of the lifting surfaces, determine a plane. The imaginary plane determined by the center lines of the lifting surfaces is defined as the plane of center lines. The plane of bilateral symmetry for an aircraft using forced vortices to generate lift is perpendicular to the plane of center lines.

The front edges of both lifting surfaces lie on an imaginary plane defined as the front terminal plane. The intersections of the front terminal plane with the lifting surfaces are semi-circles.

The rear edges of the lifting surfaces also lie on an imaginary plane. That plane is defined as the rear terminal plane. The intersections of the lifting surfaces with the rear terminal plane are substantially semicircular.

Both the front terminal plane and the rear terminal plane is perpendicular to the both the plane of bilateral symmetry and the plane of center lines.

The lifting surfaces have lateral edges. The lateral edges closest to the bilateral plane of symmetry are defined as the proximal edges. The lateral edges furthest from the bilateral plane of symmetry are defined as the distal edges. The proximal edge and the distal edge of each lifting surface are parallel to each other.

Looking at a craft from the front that depends forced vortices to produce lift, the bilateral plane of symmetry is parallel to the observers line of sight. The lifting surface lying to the left of the bilateral plane of symmetry is defined as the left lifting surface. The lifting surface lying to the right of the bilateral plane of symmetry is defined to be the right lifting surface.

The distal and proximal edges of each lifting surface are parallel and thus determine plane. The plane determined by the lateral edges of the left lifting surface is defined as the left dihedral plane. the plane defined by the lateral edges of the right lifting surface is defined as the right dihedral plane.

Dihedral Angles

The angle between a dihedral plane and the plane of center lines is defined as the dihedral angle. The angle between the left dihedral plane and the plane of center lines is defined as the left dihedral angle and has a value of *delta*. The angle between the right dihedral plane and the plane of center lines is defined as the right dihedral angle and has a value of *-delta*. The left and right dihedral angles are equal magnitude and opposite in direction. The left dihedral angle is measured in a counter-clockwise direction while the right dihedral angle is measured in a clockwise direction. Both dihedral angles are measured from the plane of center lines toward the dihedral plane.

Looking at a craft from the front that depends forced vortices to produce lift, the impeller and forced vortex lying to the left of the bilateral plane of symmetry is defined as the left impeller and left forced vortex. The impeller and the forced vortex lying to the right of the bilateral plane of symmetry is defined as the right impeller and right forced vortex.

The left impeller and the generated left forced vortex rotates in a counter-clockwise direction while the right impeller and the generated right forced vortex rotates in a clockwise direction.

When the surface of a forced vortex rotates past the distal edge of the lifting surface it enters the volume enclosed by the half cylinder lifting surface. When the forced vortex rotates past the proximal edge of the lifting surface it exits the volume enclosed by the half cylinder lifting surface.

Turbulence in Transition Layers

Any surface has boundary and a transition layers when a body of air is flowing past it. That is true of the half cylinder lifting surfaces with the forced vortices rotating past them as well. The transition layers created by a forced vortices rotating past their respective half cylinder lifting surface are defined as extending between a half cylinder lifting surface and its respective forced vortex.

The transition sub-layers moving past each other amplify tiny air flow fluctuations occurring within those transition layers to produce turbulence. As the surface of a forced vortex rotates past the distal edge of its respective lifting surface turbulence builds in the transition layer lying between it and the lifting surface.

Reducing Drag with Turbulent Air Flows

Turbulent air flows move more easily past surface than laminar air flows. Making air flowing past the lifting surfaces turbulent helps the efficiency of lift generation. By carefully roughening the upper sides of the lifting surfaces air flowing past them can take place more easily.

Prevention of Turbulence Buildup

Once the surfaces of the forced vortices clear the proximal edges of its lifting surface, it drags turbulent air with it. Repeatedly dragging that turbulent air past the lifting surface causes the turbulence to grow to such a magnitude that it could be destructive to the impellers and lifting surfaces. In order to prevent that destruction, air is removed from the axial regions of the forced vortices. Withdrawing air from the central regions of the forced vortex causes the surface of the forced vortex to sink inward as well as the turbulent air surrounding it. The turbulent air drawn inward is replace by air flows having a smoother more laminar motion originating in the natural vortex region lying outside the forced vortex. The turbulent air only moves inward between the time it passes the proximal edge of the lifting surface and the time it passes the distal edge of the lifting surface.

Air is drawn out the axial region of each forced vortex through an orifice in the rear vortex seal that is concentric to the axis of each impeller. Mounted to each orifice is the intake is a gas turbine. Each turbine both turns the impeller and the withdraws air out of the center of the forced vortex created by the impeller.

Air withdrawn from the forced vortices is used to help produce the thrust to needed to drive the aircraft forward through the air.

Efficiency in Lift Generation

Though an aircraft employing forced vortices to generate lift depends on the Bernoulli Effect to do so, it still must satisfy Newton's Law:

F=ma

In order to generate a lifting force, the lifting apparatus accelerates the surrounding masses of air downward; it imparts downward momentum to the air.

The lifting apparatus creates extensive natural vortices around the aircraft. The bodies of air in the natural vortices are sheared off when they are moving in a downward direction.

A practical aircraft must produces lift efficiently. An aircraft producing lift by imparting an amount downward momentum to a large body of air is more efficient than an aircraft imparting the same amount of momentum to a small body of air. An aircraft using forced vortices to produce lift is efficient because it imparts downward momentum to a large body of air. It acellerates a large mass of air a little bit.

Increasing the Efficiency of Lift Generation by Partially Protecting the Upward Driving Forced Vortex Surfaces

The sides of the forced vortices nearest to the bilateral plane of symmetry is defined as the proximal surfaces of the forced vortices. The sides of the forced vortices furthest from the plane of bilateral symmetry are defined as the distal surfaces of the forced vortices. The proximal surfaces of the forced vortices drive downward. By tipping the left and right lifting surfaces so that more than half of the distal or upward driving surfaces of the vortices are protected from the surrounding air masses and more than half of the distal or downward sides of the vortices are exposed to the surrounding air masses the efficiency of the lift generation process is increased.

Description of Prior Art

From the time humans first learned to fly they have had only one practical way to produce lift: the wing. The wing yielded a mode of travel that was a substantial improvement in many ways over other modes of travel. Wings have some important shortcomings, however:

a) The velocity asymmetries around the surfaces of wings are the basis for the lift they generate. When wings move through the air, they produce substantial drops in pressure at their upper and lower surfaces. The forces generated on the upper and the lower surfaces of the wing, however, point in opposite directions so that they almost completely cancel out.

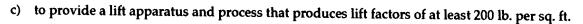
- b) Because wings have low lift factors they have to be large in order to generate a practical amount of lift. The large size of the wings causes them to create a lot of drag when they move through the air.
- c) Winged aircraft have a fairly narrow range of speed that they work well in. In order to get off the ground they must have a much larger wing than they need after they have gained speed. The large wing needed to take off creates a lot of drag at high velocity. That makes if very hard to fly at supersonic or hypersonic speeds.
- d) Wings have to be moved at fairly high velocity in order to produce practical amounts of lift. That means that they have a lot of room to operate and that winged aircraft are dangerous to bystanders. That is true even for rotary winged craft (helicopters).
- e) Wings waste a lot of energy because they shed powerful vortices into the passing air as they generate lift. The energy that goes into those vortices contributes nothing to the generation of lift by the wing.
- f) Wings can suddenly stop producing lift. If a winged aircraft flies too slowly the wings stall and can cause a crash.
- g) Wings can't produce lift when they are standing still. To make a craft that can hover while it is standing still, means that the wings must be incorporated into a mechanism that swings them through the air. That mechanism and the wing together is called a rotary wing mechanism. It is very complicated and requires a lot of maintenance to operate reliably.
- h) Rotary wing mechanism are inefficient.
- i) Rotary wing craft are complicated and thus require a lot of maintenance
- j) The rotary wing mechanisms operate asymetrically when a helicopter moves forward through the air. Without a corrective mechanism the helicopter produces greater lift on one side than the other. The forward sweeping wings would experiences a much higher air velocity than an aft sweeping wing. An elaborate hinge system is able to correct of those air flow asymmetries at low speed. The is no corrective mechanism that allows a helicopter to operate at speeds faster than 250 m.p.h.

Objects and Advantages

Accordingly, besides the objects and advantages of the apparatus and process for producing lift with line vortices described in my above patent, several objects and advantages of the present invention are:

- a) to provide a lift apparatus and process that uses the Bernoulli Effect to generate lift
- b) to provide a lift apparatus and process that is efficient.





- d) to provide a lift apparatus with lifting surfaces that are an integral part of the fuselage thus don't create drag by projecting into the passing air stream
- e) to provide a lift apparatus and process that can operate efficiently at a range of velocities from hovering to hypersonic
- f) to provide a lift apparatus and process that can be safely operated in small confines
- g) to provide a lift apparatus and process that does not waste energy by shedding vortices into the passing air stream
- h) to provide a lift apparatus and process that is stall resistant and reliably produces lift at all craft velocities
- i) to provide a lift apparatus and process that allows a craft incorporating it to hover but is mechanically much simpler than the rotary wing of the helicopter
- j) to provide a lift apparatus and process that produces only balanced torques so that it can both hover and travel forward without producing any residual torques that act on the craft as a whole.

The object the lift generating process and apparatus that is the subject of this patent is to generate lift by producing volumes of low pressure air above lifting surfaces. A by product of lift producing process is a defuse air stream that flows downward away from the lift generating apparatus.

Reference Numerals in Drawings

100	is the power plant(s) such as a turbine(s)
201,202	are the left and right impellers
201a, 202a	are the drive shafts for the left and right impellers.
201b, 202b	are the blades of the left and right impellers.
201c, 202c	are the spoke sets of the left and right impellers.
211	Step, apply counter clockwise torque to left impeller.
212	Step, apply clockwise torque to right impeller.
221, 222	Steps, create left and right forced vortices by imparting angular momentum to vortices
231, 232	Steps, left and right impellers imparting reactive torques to the power plant(s)
240	Step, the cancellation of reactive torques at the
301	is the left counter clockwise rotating forced vortex
301 a	is the left forced vortex surface



	302	is the right clockwise rotating forced vortex	
	302a	is the right forced vortex surface.	
	311,312	Steps, the downward acceleration of air in contact with the downward driving surfaces of the left and right forced vortices	
	401, 402	are the left and right air knives.	
	411, 412	Steps, sever entrained, accelerated air surrounding the left and right forced vortices	
	501, 502	are the left and air guides	
mark	511, 512	Steps, guide high velocity air away from the still or lower velocity air in contact with lower sides of the lifting surfaces.	
مر ح	601, 602	are the left and right lifting surfaces	
	601a, 602a	are the proximal edges for the left and right lifting surfaces.	
_	601b, 602b	are the distal edges for the left and right lifting surfaces.	
Tany	601c, 602c	are the dihedral planes that are defined by the proximal and distal edges for the left and right lifting surfaces.	
	610	is an imaginary plane of bilateral symmetry which bisects the angle between the dihedral planes of the lifting surfaces as well as bisecting the craft in which they are incorporated into a left half and a right half. The left half of the craft is the mirror image of the right half of the craft.	
	611, 612	Steps, rotate fresh surfaces of left and right forced vortices into contact with upper sides of the lifting surfaces 601 and 602.	
Droert	621, 622	Steps, transmit lifting force to payload resulting from pressure differentials caused by having high velocity vortex associated air in contact with the upper surfaces of the load couplers, and by having still or lower velocity air in contact with the lower surfaces of the load couplers.	
₹	631, 632	is the imaginary plane defined by the center lines for the half-cylinder lifting surfaces	
	031, 032	Steps, make surfaces of forced vortices, 301 and 302 chaotic or turbulent by bringing them into contact with roughened of lifting surfaces, 601 and 602.	
	641, 642	Steps, protect upward driving surfaces of forced vortices 301 and 302 to prevent substantial upward acceleration of air surrounding the forced vortices.	
	701	is the left front vortex seal.	
	703	is the annular left rear vortex seal.	

	703a	is the orifice in the left rear vortex seal.				
	702	is the right front vortex seal.				
	704	is the annular right rear vortex seal.				
	704a	is the orifice in the right rear vortex seal.				
	711	Steps, seal both ends of left vortex, 301, with the to prevent outward radial motion of the air in it.				
	712	Steps, seal both ends of right vortex, 302, with the to prevent outward radial motion of the air in it.				
	801, 802	are the left and right air pumps such as turbines.				
	811, 812	Steps, pump air out of the cores of the left and right forced vortices through the orifices, 703a and 704a in the left and right rear vortex seals, 703 and 704.				
	821, 822	Steps, draw turbulent air inward once the upward moving surfaces of the left and right forced vortices, 301 and 302, have cleared the upper edges of the left and right load couplers, 601 and 602.				
	831, 832	Steps, replace inwardly drawn, turbulent air from surfaces of the left and right forced vortices, with the more laminar air surrounding the surfaces the left and right forced vortices.				
r	rawing Figures					
	Figure 2	is an end view block diagram showing the power plant 100 and impellers 201 and 202 and impeller spokes sets 201c and 202c. The power plant is shown as a single entity but can be a pair of gas turbines. One for the left impeller and one for the right impeller.				
	Figure 3	is an end view block diagram showing power plant 100 applying torques, represented by solid arcs, to impellers 201 and 202 in steps 211 and 212. The diagram also shows impellers 201 and 202 applying reactive torques, represented by dotted arcs, to the power plant in steps 231 and 232. The diagram also shows the cancellation of the				

.

Figure 5

Figure 4

plant in step 240 represented by an arc of zero length.

to rotate with the same angular velocity as the impellers.

oppositely directed reactive torques leaving no net reactive torques acting on the power

is an end view block diagram showing how the impeller blades, 201a and 202a, initiate forced vortices by forcing the periphery of the volumes of air embedded in the impellers

is an end view block diagram showing transfer of angular momentum from the periphery to the interior of the embedded volumes of air in impellers, 201 and 202, to

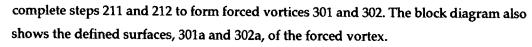


Figure 6 is an end view block diagram showing the spacial relationships between the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, the air guides, 501 and 502, and the intersection of the those elements to form the air knives 401 and 402.

Figure 7 is an end view block diagram showing the spacial relationships between the impellers, 201 and 202, the lift surfaces, 601 and 602 and air guides, 501 and 502.

Figure 8 is an end view block diagram showing the spacial relationships between the forced vortices, 301 and 302, their surfaces 301a and 302a, and the lift surfaces, 601 and 602, air guides, 501 and 502.

Figure 9 is an end view block diagram of volumes of air that are near to the forced vortices 301 and 302 being accelerated downward by frictional forces generated by vortices 301 and 302. Those volumes are shown as being separated from the vortices 301 and 302 by the air knives, 401 and 402, once those volumes reach those air knives. As those volumes continue to move downward they are shown being guided away from the underside of the lifting surfaces 601 and 602 by the air guides, 501 and 502

Figure 10 is an end view block diagram depicting, with arrows, the centrifugal forces acting on a forced vortex causing it to spread radially and draw air into its core because its ends are unsealed. The white circle in the center of the vortex diagram represents slow moving air with little angular momentum that has been drawn into the core.

Figure 11 is an end view block diagram that is an end view of the of the vortex seals positioned relative to the lifting surfaces 201 and 202 and air guides, 501 and 502.

Figure 12 is a side view block diagram that is a side view that shows how the front and rear vortex seals, 702 and 704, are positioned relative the right impeller, 202 and the lifting surface 602.

Figure 13 is a side view block diagram. It highlights the position of air knife, 402, and air guide, 502 relative to the rest of the apparatus generating the lift process.

> is a block diagram, right side view of the lift producing assembly, showing air being extracted from the core of the forced vortex, 302, by the air pump, 802. The drawing also shows the right vortex seals 702 sealing each end of forced vortex 302. Left vortex 301 simultaneously undergoes an identical processes.

> This diagram also shows steps 831 and 832. Those steps are the replacement of the chaotic air drawn inward, in steps 821 and 822, with laminar air drawn from just outside

Figure 14

Figure 16

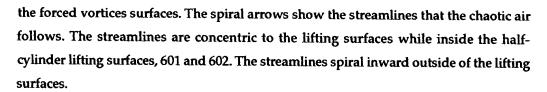


Figure 17

is a block diagram of showing the orientation of the lifting surfaces 601 and 602. The proximate sides of 601 and 602 protect more than half of the upward driving surfaces of forced vortices, 301 and 302, carrying out steps 641 and 642. The distal sides of lifting surfaces 601 and 602 protect less than half of the downward driving surfaces of forced vortices, 301 and 302, and, because of that, enhance steps 311 and 312, the downward acceleration of the air around the exposed surfaces of forced vortices, 301 and 302. All aircraft that produce lift by the Bernoulli effect create a downwash of air as a by product. There can be no lift generated aerodynamically unless net downward momentum is imparted to the air surrounding aircraft lifting surfaces. The orientation of the lifting surfaces is intended to maximize that downwash of air without sacrificing much upward facing surface areas of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602.

Figure 18

shows the location of all the bodies of air interacting with the assembly generating the lift process. It shows the low pressure forced vortices, 301 and 302, that are in contact with the upper surfaces of 601 and 602. It shows the downwashes created in steps 311 and 312 when the air in contact with 301 and 302 is accelerated downward. And lastly, it shows the higher pressure, lower velocity air that is protected and maintained by the air knives, and air guides in steps 411 and 412, and steps 511 and 512.

Figure 19

shows the forces acting on the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602. Forces are vectors and are usually represented, graphically, with arrows. The forces generated by the load couplers 601 and 602 are represented by heavy straight arrows in the drawing. Because the lifting surfaces are tilted the forces generated by 601 and 602 are also tilted.

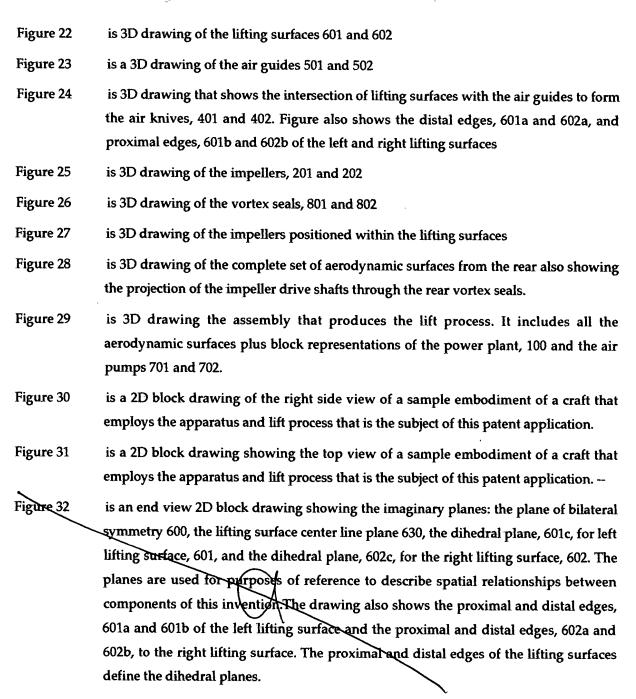
The figure also shows the four bodies of air created by the lift process: the left and right forced vortices 301 and 302, the down wash of entrained air created in steps 311 and 312, and the low velocity high pressure air protected by air guides 401 and 402.

Figure 20

is a vector diagram showing the total lifting force resulting from steps 621 and 622

Figure 21

is a block diagram that shows, symbolically, the resultant lifting force, created by steps 621 and 622, acting on the payload. That resultant lifting force acts on the lift mechanism's plane of bilateral symmetry, 600. The payload in this case is the gross payload. The gross payload is: the assembly generating the lift, the remainder of the aircraft that the load mechanism is incorporated in, and the aircraft's cargo.



Description

A typical embodiment of the mechanism producing the lift generating process that is the present invention is illustrated in the rear view 3D Figure 29.

Impellers

A hollow, cylindrical left impeller or rotor, 201, and a hollow, cylindrical right impeller or rotor, 202, are side by side with a space between them as shown in 3D Figure 25. Both the left impeller and the right impeller have an axis of rotation. Those axes are also parallel and side by side. In



addition, each impeller has a center line and an outside diameter. The center line and the axis of rotation for each respective impeller are colinear. That makes the center lines also parallel and side by side.

Each impeller has a drive shaft. The drive shaft of each impeller has a center line, a circumference and a diameter. The center line of the drive shaft is colinear with the center line of the impeller as a whole. The center line of the impeller is colinear with the center line of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, as well as shown in Figure 7.

The drive shafts each have a front end and a rear end. Near near each of those ends are an identical plurality of spokes. Those spokes have equal length and mass. Each member of a plurality of spokes is coplanar with a member of the plurality on the opposite end of its drive shaft as shown in Figure 25.

Connecting each pair of coplanar spokes is a narrow rectangular impeller blade. The each impeller blade has an identical longitudinal axis spanning its length. And each impeller blade has an identical transversal axis spanning its width. Each end of the impeller blades is attached to the outer end of a spoke. The longitudinal axis of each blade of the impeller is oriented parallel to the center line of its respective drive shaft. The transversal axis of each blade of the impeller is perpendicular to and thus oriented radially relative to that center line as shown in Figure 25.

Plane of Bilateral Symmetry

The space between the parallel center lines is bisected by an imaginary plane, the plane of bilateral symmetry. 610. The plane of bilateral symmetry bisects the device producing the lift process into two parts that are mirror images of each other.

Impellers Attach to Front Vortex Seals

A front seal of left vortex seals, 701, is attached by rotatable means to the front end of the left drive shaft of 201. A front seal of right vortex seal, 702, is attached by rotatable means to the front end of the right drive shaft of 202. The front vortex seals, 701 and 702, are each planar circular plates with a diameter, a circumference, a lower edge and a center line. They also have an inner surface and outer surface. The inner surface of each front vortex seal faces toward its respective impeller. The vortex seals are oriented perpendicularly to the center lines of their respective impellers as shown in Figure 12. The center line of each front vortex seal, 701 and 702, is colinear

with the center line of its respective impeller. The diameters of the vortex seals are slightly larger than the diameters of the impellers. The front seals, 701 and 702, and rear seals of 703 and 704 are shown in the 3D Figure 26.

Front Vortex Seals Attach to Front of Lifting Surfaces

The lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, have a front edges and a rear edges.

The lower edge of the left front vortex seal, 701, attaches to the front edge of left lifting surface, 601. The lower edge of the right front vortex seal, 702, attaches to the front edge of the right lifting surface, 602. Both attachments are by fixed air tight means.

The front edges of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, attach to the lower sides of the front vortex seals, 701 and 702, while the rear edges of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602 attach to the lower sides of the rear vortex seals 703 and 704.

Lifting Surfaces

Each lifting surface is semi cylindrical surface with center line, an inner surface, an outer surface, an upper surface and a lower surface. Each lifting surface also has an inside diameter and an outside diameter. The inner surface of each of the lifting surface is concentric to the outer circumference of the lifting surface

The inside surfaces of, 601 and 602, are defined as the upper sides of the lifting surfaces. And the outer surfaces of the 601 and 602 are defined as the lower sides of the lifting surfaces as shown in Figures 6, 27 and others as well.

Plane of Center Lines

The center line of each lifting surface is colinear with the center line of its associated impeller and thus are parallel and side by side as shown in Figure 27. The two center lines of the half cylinder lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, define another plane, the plane of center lines, 630. The plane of center lines, is perpendicular to plane of bilateral symmetry, 610. Both planes are shown in Figure 33.

Proximal and Distal Edges of Lifting Surface

The edges, 601a and 601b, of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, nearest to the plane of bilateral symmetry are defined as the proximal edges. The edges, 601b and 602b, the edges furthest from the plane of bilateral symmetry is defined as distal edges. Shown in Figures 24 and 32.



Dihedral Planes

Since both of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, is semi-cylindrical, they each have two edges that are parallel to the center line. The parallel edges of the lifting surface, 601, defines an imaginary plane called the left dihedral plane. The parallel edges of lifting surface 602 defines an imaginary plane called the right dihedral plane.

The right dihedral plane subtends angle, delta, with the plane of center lines, 630. The left dihedral plane subtends an equal but opposite angle, - delta, with the plane of center lines. The angle, delta, should be less than forty five degrees.

The upper surface of left lifting surface, 601 faces the left dihedral plane, 601a. The upper surface of lifting surface, 602, right dihedral plane, 602a.

Air Guides Attach to Lift Surfaces at Distal Edges to form Air Knives

The left air guide, 501, has a length and a width and is attached by a fixed means along its length to the distal edge of the left lifting surface, 601. The right air guide, 502, also has a length and width and likewise is attached by a fixed means along its length to the distal edge of the right lifting surface, 602. The air guides, 501 and 502, are planar surfaces that have the substantially the same length as lifting surfaces, 601 and 602. The width of the air guides is oriented perpendicular to the plane of center lines, 630, of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602.

The left air knife, 401, is formed at the distal edge of the left lifting surface by the intersection of the left lifting surface, 601, and the left air guide 501. And a right air knife 402 is formed at the distal edge of the right lifting surface by the intersection of the right lifting surface, 602, and the right air guide, 502. Both are shown in Figures 6 and 24.

Lift Surfaces Attach to Rear Vortex Seals

The left rear vortex seal 703 attaches to the rear of edge of left lifting surface, 601, by a fixed air tight means. And a rear vortex seal, 704, attaches to the right lifting surface, 602, by a fixed air tight means.

The rear vortex seals, 703 and 704, are each planar circular plates with a circular holes in them, 703a and 704a. The circular plates as well as the circular holes contained within them have diameters and a center line. The center lines of the rear vortex seals, 703 and 704, are colinear with the center lines of the circular holes. The diameters of the holes, 703a and 704a, in the rear vortex



seals are equal in size and larger than the diameters of the drive shafts of the impellers as shown in Figure 26.

The rear vortex seals, 703 and 704, each have an inner surface and an outer surface. The inner surfaces of the rear seals, 703 and 704, face the impellers 201 and 202 and are perpendicular to the center lines of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602.

Impeller Drive Shafts Extend Through Rear Vortex Seals

The rear ends of the drive shafts of the impellers, 201 and 202, extend through the circular holes, 703a and 704a, past the outer surfaces of the rear vortex seals of 703 and 704. The center lines of the drive shafts are colinear with the center lines of the circular holes. Between the circumferences of the drive shaft and the circumferences of the holes are even margins of space as shown in Figure 28.

Air Pumps Attach to Rear Vortex Seals

A left air pump, 801, attaches to the outer surface of the rear vortex seal of 703 by fixed means. A right air pump, 802, attaches to the outer surface of the other rear vortex seal, 704, also by fixed means as shown in Figure 29. The air pumps devices such as turbines.

The air pumps each have an inlet. Those inlets are aligned with the holes, 703a and 704a, in the rear vortex seals, 703 and 704 so that air can flow through the holes and into the inlets of the air pumps. The regions of the rear vortex seals, 703 and 704, surrounding the air pump inlets, 703a and 704a are attached to the rest of the air pumps by fixed air tight means.

Power Plants Attach to Air Pumps and to Impellers

A power plant 100 attaches to left air pump 701 and right air pump,702, attaches to the left air by transmissive means as shown in Figure 29. The power plant, 100 is also attached to the left impeller, 201, and right impeller, 202, by transmissive means. The power plant can take the form of two separate power plants such as gas turbines. A left power plant can power the left air pump, 701, and rotate the left impeller,201. A right power plant, can power the right air pump,702, and rotate the right impeller, 202. Gas turbine power plants can additionally supply thrust for a craft that uses the lifting process and apparatus that is the subject of this patent.

Operation

Referring now to the accompanying drawings:

Rotating Impellers

power plant 100 applies a counter clockwise torque to impeller 201 in Step 110 and applies a clockwise torque to impellers 202 in Step 120 as shown in Figures 1 and 3.

Impeller 201, in Step 211, imparts counterclockwise angular momentum to the volume of air imbedded in the volume swept out by the impeller. That step creates forced vortex 301 and maintains it as shown in Figures 1 and 5.

Creating Forced Vortices

Impeller 202, in Step 212, imparts clockwise angular momentum to the volume of air imbedded in the volume swept out by the impeller. That step creates forced vortex 302 and maintains it as shown in Figures 1 and 5.

A forced vortex by definition is one in which all the fluid in it has the same angular velocity. That is contrasted with a to a natural vortex in which the angular velocity of the constituent fluid varies as 1/r, where r is the radial distance from the vortex axis.

Forced vortices are created by imparting an angular velocity to the periphery of a body of fluid. Drag soon causes the interior portions of that body of fluid to rotate with the same angular velocity as the exterior portions of that body of fluid.

The rotation of impellers, 201 and 202, forces the cylindrical bands of air between the impeller blades of each impeller to rotate with the same angular velocity, on average, as the impeller blades. The volumes air inside those cylindrical bands of air is acted on by drag and rapidly acquires the same angular velocity as those outer volumes as shown in Figures 4 and 5.

The outer edges of the volume swept out by those impellers is defined as the surfaces of the forced vortices as shown in Figure 8.

The volumes of air outside the forced vortices are also pulled along by drag. Those volumes behave as though they were a constituents of natural vortices. The velocities of those volumes falls off inversely as their distance from the axis of rotation for the impellers. For example the velocity for those outer volumes at 2 radii from the axis of rotation is 1/2 velocity of the outer edges of the of the impellers and at 3 radii is 1/3, etc. Where a radius is the distance to the outer edge of the impeller from the axis of the impeller. The velocity profiles of the volumes of air surrounding the forced vortices is represented graphically in Figure 18 by the radial gradients in the



Ineuty 46

-areas surrounding the images of 301 and 302. The darkest areas represent the highest velocity air.

-while the lightest areas represent the slowest velocity air.

The forced vortices should essentially be side by side and should have axes that are substantially parallel shown in Figures 5. The axes of the vortices in all end view drawings are perpendicular to the page and thus are parallel to each other. That is true of the impellers also shown in Figures 2,3, 7 and 25 as well as many others.

Cancellation of Reactive Torques

Impeller 201 transmits clockwise reactive torque in Step 221, to power plant 100. Impeller 202 transmits counter clockwise reactive torque in step 222, to power plant 100. Reactive torques transmitted to power plant 100, in Steps 221 and 222, cancel out in Step 230 as shown in Figure 2.

The forced vortices have essentially identical properties except for rotational directions, which are opposite as shown in Figure 5 and others.

Sealing Ends of Forced Vortices

The left vortex seals, 701 and 703, seal both ends of forced vortex 301 to create a partial vacuum in Step 711. Likewise the right vortex seals, 702 and 704, seal both ends of forced vortex 302 to create a partial vacuum in Step 712. Figure 14 shows Step 712 for the right forced vortex 302 only while Figure 11 shows the sealing the front sides of both vortices. The maintenance of the partial vacuum in the vortices keeps the centrifugal forces from pulling them apart as shown in Figure 10.

Energy spent in moving air radially outward is wasted. Only air moving tangentially to the forced vortex surfaces contributes to the development of lift.

Imparting Downward Momentum to Surrounding Air

The forced vortex 301 in Step 311 and forced vortex 302, in Step 312, entrain and accelerate masses of air near their surfaces downward shown in Figures 9 and 18.

Soon after air entrained by forced vortices 301 and 302 has gained downward momentum it reaches the air knives 401 and 402. There most of the entrained air separates from the surfaces of the forced vortices, 301 and 302, in Steps 411 and 412 as shown in Figure 18.

Once air with downward momentum separates from the surfaces of the forced vortices by the action of the air knives, 401 and 402, and air guides, 501 and 502, it moves away from the under



sides of the lifting surfaces, 602 and 602, and is ejected from the vicinity of the load couplers as shown in Figure 18.

After most of the entrained air separates from the surfaces of forced vortices 301 and 302, the remaining entrained air around the forced vortex surfaces immediately rotates into contact with the upper surfaces of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, in Steps 611 and 612 as shown in Figures 18.

Generating Lift with the Bernoulli Effect

Steps, 611 and 612, bring the high velocity low pressure air of the forced vortices, 301 and 302, into contact with the upper surfaces of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602. The lower surfaces of the lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, are in contact with low velocity high pressure air. That air is protected from the high velocity air stream severed from the surfaces of the forced vortices by the air guides, 501 and 502, as shown in Figure 18. The pressure differentials that exist between upper sides of the load couplers and the lower sides of the lifting surfaces exerts lifting forces on those surfaces. That lifting force transmits to the payload in Steps 621 and 622 by lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, as shown in Figures 19, 20, and 21.

Reducing Coefficients of Drag for the Protectede Surfaces of the Forced Vortices
In Steps 631 and 632, the air near the surfaces of forced vortices is made turbulent by rotating into contact with roughened upper sides of the lifting surfaces, lowering coefficients of friction or drag between the lifting surfaces and the of forced vortices, 301 and 302, as shown in Figure 15.

Protecting Upward Driving Surfaces from Surrounding Air Masses

In Steps 641 and 642, upward driving surfaces of forced vortices are protected by lifting surfaces, 601 and 602, to prevent substantial upward acceleration of surrounding air masses as shown in Figure 17.

Raising the Coefficients of Drag for Exposed Surfaces of the Forced Vortices

Raising the coefficients of drag or friction for surfaces of forced vortices, 301 and 302, helps them accelerate surrounding air masses once those surfaces drive downward again. That is the purpose of the next three Steps. In Steps 711 and 712, air pumps, 701 and 702, pull air out of the vortices 301 and 302. Figure 14 shows Steps 712 for forced vortex 302. That causes the chaotic air on the surfaces of the forced vortices to be drawn inward, in Steps 721 and 722, as shown in Figure 16. As chaotic air is drawn inward, in Steps 721 and 722, laminar air replaces it from just outside the



volumes swept out by the impellers, 201 and 202, in Steps 731 and 732 also shown in Figure 16. Laminar air is more viscous than turbulent air.

It is not necessary for the description of the invention to mention that air is accelerated downward. The description of the lift generating process can be couched entirely in terms of the Bernoulli Effect with out referring to Newton's Laws of Motion. Any aircraft the produces lift by the Bernoulli Effect also acellerates air downward. The volume of air acellerated downward gives a good indication of the efficiency of the lifting process that is the subject this invention.

All of the steps listed in the process that is this invention take place simultaneously and continuously as long as the impellers rotate.

Summary, Ramifications and Scope

Nature produces vortices that have air velocities that reach 200 miles per hour. Those vortices produce pressure differentials 1.5 pounds per square inch as a result of those velocities. That is more than 200 pounds per square foot.

If the impellers in the process that is the subject of this invention were three feet in diameter and had an angular velocity of 1868 revolutions per minute, the surfaces of the forced vortices embedded them would have surface velocities of 200 miles per hour. The air within and the air without but near to the forced vortex surfaces would be at 9/10 of an atmosphere. Such vortices in contact with the upper sides of the lifting surfaces would produce lift factors of approximately 1.5 pounds per square inch or 200 pounds per square foot, assuming that the process were taking place at sea level and that air in contact with the lower side of the load couplers was at sea level atmospheric pressure. These figures are for a craft that is hovering.

The figures would be little changed, for the same craft in motion because the relative speeds of air between the upper and lower sides of the lifting surfaces still differs by the same amount.

Such performance allows a craft using the process of this invention to easily meet the objectives outlined earlier. Furthermore, the process that is the subject of this invention has the additional advantages in that it allows craft designed around it:

- a) to hover and yet not produce any adverse torques when in forward flight.
- b) to have better control over the amount of lift being produced
- c) to be safer for bystanders on the ground



- d) to land i tighter confines
- e) to be more efficient at high velocities

than aircraft that use the air foil to generate lift.

Figures 30 and 31 clearly illustrate the design advantages that this invention confers on aircraft that employ it. The lifting surfaces don't jut into the passing airstream to create drag. They are compact and they operate while the craft is standing still.

The fact that the vortices generated by the lifting process that is the subject of this invention produce a downward movement of air that is, in theory, infinite in extent indicates that the lifting process is very efficient.

Although the description above contains may specificities, these should not be construed as limiting the scope of the invention but as merely providing illustrations of some of the preferred embodiments of this invention

Thus, the scope of the invention should be determined by the appended claims and their legal equivalents, rather than by examples; given.